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clearly or sympathetically, and no figures are given to show how it is working out.

Each volume is provided with a full and very convenient index of both names and things. Dates are ordinarily given according to Old Style, although the reader is not usually warned of the fact. The author is not always consistent in his transliteration; he writes both Witte and Wittë, Mikhail and Mikhael, Sherbatov and Tscherbatov; he renders the ninth letter in the Russian alphabet sometimes as "ë," *e.g.*, Mëlyukov, sometimes in the more usual fashion as "i," *e.g.*, Pushkin and *mujik*; he even uses both forms for the same letter in the same word, *e.g.*, *chinovnëkë* (I, 408) and *ispravnëkë* (I, 109). He is wise, however, in using freely Russian words to denote things peculiar to Russia, instead of trying to make up English terms which would inevitably be awkward and misleading.

Professor Mavor's two volumes are a valuable and much-needed work, and, in spite of any minor shortcomings, are likely to remain for some time the standard English authority on the general economic history of Russia.

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*La Révolution Industrielle et les Origines de la Protection Légale du Travail en Suisse.* By WILLIAM E. RAPPARD. (Berne: Stämpfli et Cie. 1914. Pp. vii, 343. 8.75 fr.)

This book is one of a series on Swiss economic history, and was written at the request of the Swiss labor commission on industrial hygiene and the prevention of labor accidents as a part of their exhibit for the Swiss National Exhibition of 1914. It is a well-proportioned, scientific, and thorough examination of the Industrial Revolution in Switzerland, so well-done, so carefully and fully reinforced and substantiated by contemporary documentation, that one is almost tempted to pronounce it, in respect to the particular phases of the Industrial Revolution with which it is concerned, as definitive for Switzerland.

The first third of Dr. Rappard's work is an analysis of industrial Switzerland before 1798. In this he broadmindedly and lucidly characterizes the political and religious factors which influenced and modified the general character of the economic life of the people. He thereupon proceeds, industry by industry, to explain the actual status and working methods of Switzerland's economic or-

ganization. The cotton industry unquestionably stood first in importance at that time. We meet with its first traces at Bâle in 1380, but soon afterwards the canton of Zurich forged to the foremost place and stayed there during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The city of Zurich kept close control of the industry in the canton by a series of laws, among them one which ordained that cotton cloth could be sold only to its citizens—a circumstance which produced great dissatisfaction and which proved later to be the most influential factor in destroying the ancient régime in eastern Switzerland. Cotton manufacturing was carried on, for the most part, by the domestic system. Traveling agents, called *Träger*, scoured the countryside in procuring orders and dispensing new raw material. The machinery in use was of the simplest, easily installed and repaired by ambulatory mechanics known as *Geschirrfasser*. The silk industry, also largely centered at Zurich, progressed more rapidly in the early eighteenth century than any other. In it, at one place at least, a very unique form of power machinery was in vogue. This power was provided by a large number of female idiots, deaf-mutes and blind people who walked round and round turning a horizontal shaft attached to a wheel. Shortly after 1730, however, hydraulic water power was substituted for this monotonous and ill-paid labor. Bâle, owing to a large influx of Huguenots in the sixteenth century, became the center of the ribbon trade. Here, as in the canton of Zurich, all buying and selling was concentrated in the capital, although the work was done in the scattered villages of the neighborhood. Modern watchmaking, in the meanwhile, had its origin in Geneva in 1587, and so rapid was its progress that by the time of the French Revolution there were in Geneva over a thousand master watchmakers with many thousand skilled workmen in their employ. Here, as in Neuchâtel, its other center, the industry was carried on largely in the homes of the workers, in the country and even in the mountains, for no manufacturing in the early days was so split up as that of watchmaking.

The methods of Swiss industry were revolutionized during the first half of the nineteenth century. And although in the manufacture of cotton Switzerland was not able to keep pace with England, nor in that of silk with the French—it was not till ten years after the Jacquard loom had been adopted in Lyons that it made its appearance in Zurich—in one industry Switzerland stood su-

preme by the middle of the century, namely, watchmaking. A mechanic from Neuchatel, Jean Jacques Jeannerret-Gris, about 1765, conceived the possibility of watchmaking by machinery, and from his time down to the series of ingenious invention of Georges Leschot in 1839, the Swiss watch industry made great strides. Yet, curiously enough, in this particular industry it was not until the beginning of the twentieth century that the domestic system began to be displaced to any considerable extent by that of the factory, and by the middle of the nineteenth, the approximate date for the ending of this book, that process had scarcely begun. The reason for this, Dr. Rappard considers, was partly due to the fact that watchmaking was carried on almost entirely by men of the Latin stock who were more disinclined to factory discipline than their Teutonic brethren, partly because, as Marx points out, those manufactured products which are the result of a succession of continued processes are more readily adapted to the factory system than those which result from a number of separate processes, each complete in itself.

The third section of the book is given over to the beginnings of labor legislation. The apparently democratic form of government in Switzerland before the Industrial Revolution is no criterion for assuming, says Rappard, that the country was then without vexatious labor disturbances. At the upper end of the scale there was friction between the old established watchmakers and the newcomers; at the lower end the calico printers were restless and resentful at the evil conditions under which they lived. Here and there certain partial protection was afforded to the workers—witness the Zurich law of 1779 forbidding the employment of children who could not read—but in general there was scarcely any protective legislation before the nineteenth century. The Swiss revolution in 1798 was largely negative, in so far as labor legislation was concerned. The honor of first definitely accomplishing anything in this direction was due to the canton of Zurich which, in 1815, passed the first Swiss law of modern lines. But so slow was the awakening of the Swiss conscience in this matter that only two other cantons had followed the example of Zurich by the middle of the century.

The great bulk of the Swiss working class, during the period of the Industrial Revolution, were in a worse condition in respect to wages and hours of labor than their fellow workingmen in England

and France. On the other hand, they were favored by the old Swiss land laws which prevented the growth of large landed estates, and also by the important fact that the Swiss manufacturing cities averaged much less in population than those in the larger countries. In consequence, the health of the Swiss workers was less endangered by overcrowding, bad sanitation, etc. At any rate, whether from this or other causes, the native Swiss took but little interest in the socialism of the mid-nineteenth century, holding aloof from the propaganda of the International, which was carried on so extensively by foreigners from within the borders of Switzerland.

When the movement for the regulation of labor conditions did gather headway, it was the German not the French and Italian cantons which inaugurated it, and, unlike similar legislation in the great countries of Europe, the impetus was due primarily to the activity of the working class itself, rather than to philanthropic or sedative motives on the part of the employer.

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*Intervention and Colonization in Africa. World Diplomacy, Vol.*

1. By NORMAN DWIGHT HARRIS. With an introduction by JAMES T. SHOTWELL. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 1914. Pp. xviii, 384. \$2.00.)

By the promise of the title-page this is the first volume of a series on "World Diplomacy." The author's preface declares the expectation of a second volume, on European Intervention and Competition in Asia.

Two of the six colored maps in this book bring to the eyes in a moment the whole story of these 384 printed pages. One shows the European possessions in Africa in 1870, a few faint films of color along disconnected fringes of continent, indicating little more than a foothold for France, England, Portugal, and Spain. The other depicts the Africa of 1914, parcelled out from circumference to center among the same powers, with Germany and Italy added. In less than forty-five years this partition of Africa into pastures for European commerce has been achieved, partly by chartered companies, but, in later stages, for the most part by diplomacy.

Among the all too brief generalizations in the opening chapter we learn that the directing motive in the partition of Africa, which